

## Unit 1 What's in a Name?

**TEACHER:** Good morning, everybody. Good morning, Felipe, Monica, Theo, . . . and I can't remember your name.

**STUDENT 1:** Patricia.

**TEACHER:** Patricia, right, Patricia. Those are all beautiful names, and that's our topic today—names. Names are a cultural **universal**. This means everyone uses names. A person's name can tell us a bit about a person's family. Today, we'll begin by looking at first names and how people choose names for their children. And then we'll talk about family names, and look at the different categories of family names. Although the **scope** of the lecture today is English-language names, we can use the same approach, you know, to look at names from any culture.

Let's take a **brief** look at first, or given, names. There are several ways parents choose the first name for their child.

The first way is by family history. Parents may choose a name because it is passed from **generation** to generation; for example, the firstborn son might be named after his father or grandfather. Although family names are also passed to daughters, it is usually as a middle name. Adding "junior" or "the second"—for example, William Parker the second—is only done with boys', not with girls' names.

The second way parents choose a name is after a family member or friend who has died recently, or after someone they **admire**, like a well-known leader or a famous musician. Although most English first names mean something, for example, "Richard" means powerful and "Ann" means grace, nowadays meaning is not the main reason people select their baby's name.

The third way is to provide a "push" for the child. Parents want to choose a name that sounds very "successful." A strong name might help them in the business world, for example. Or they might choose a name that works for either **gender**, like Taylor or Terry. So, given these three methods, what is the most common way parents choose a name? Many parents choose a name simply because they like it, or because it's fashionable or **classic**. Fashions in names change just as they do in clothes. One hundred years ago, many names came from the Bible—names such as Daniel, and Anna, and Hannah and Matthew. Then, fifty years ago, Biblical names went out of fashion. Nowadays, names from the Bible are becoming popular again.

Similarly, parents often choose classic names, names that were popular in 1900, 1950, and are still popular now. Classic names for boys include Thomas, David, Robert, and Michael. And for girls: Anna, Elizabeth, Emily, and Katherine, just to name a few. They're classic. They never go out of style.

Let's look at the **origin** of last names, also called family names or surnames. Researchers have studied thousands of last names, and they've divided them into four categories. The categories are: place names, patronymics, added names, and occupational names. A recent survey showed that of the 7,000 most popular names in the United States today, 43 percent were place names, 32 percent were patronymics, 15 percent were occupational names, and 9 percent were added names.

The first category is place names. Place names usually identified where a person lived or worked. Someone named John Hill lived near a hill, for example, and the Rivers family lived near a river. If you hear the name Emma Bridges, . . . what **image** do you see? Do you see a family that lives near a bridge? If you do, you get the idea.

The second category is patronymics. That's P-A-T-R-O-N-Y-M-I-C-S. A patronymic is the father's name, plus an ending like S-E-N or S-O-N. The ending means that a child, a boy, is the son of his father. The names Robertson, Petersen, and Wilson are patronymics. Robertson is son of Robert, Petersen is son of Peter, and so on.

The third category is added names. Linguists sometimes call this category "nicknames," but when most of us hear the word "nickname," we think of a special name a friend or a parent might use. The word "nickname" is actually an old English word that means an additional name, an added name. So I'll use the term "added name." This category of last names is fun because the names usually described a person. Reed, Baldwin, and Biggs are examples. Reed was from "red" for red hair. Baldwin was someone who was bald, someone who had little or no hair. And Biggs?

**STUDENT 2:** Someone big?

**TEACHER:** Yeah, someone big, right. Now, if we look around the room, we could probably come up with some new last names, like, uh, Curly or Strong.

Now, the fourth category is occupational names. The origin of the family name was the person's occupation. The most common examples of occupational names still used

today are Baker (someone who bakes bread), Tailor (someone who sews clothes), Miller (someone who makes flour for bread), and Smith. . . . Now, Smith is actually the most common name in the western English-speaking world. The name comes from an Old English word, smite, that's S-M-I-T-E, which means to hit or strike. In the old days, a smith made metal things for daily life, like tools. Every town needed smiths. What's interesting is that many languages have a family name that means Smith. In Arabic it is Haddad, H-A-D-D-A-D. In Spanish it is Herrera, H-E-R-R-E-R-A. In Italian it is Ferraro, F-E-R-R-A-R-O. And in German it is Schmidt, spelled S-C-H-M-I-D-T. All these names mean smith.

Though names may tell us something about someone's family history, you need to **keep in mind** that they may not tell us much at all about the present. For example, there's usually not much connection between the origin of the name and the person who has it now. Take the name Cook, for instance. A person named Cook today probably doesn't cook for a living. Also, many people change their names for various reasons. Lots of people who have moved to the United States have changed their names to sound more American. This happens less now than in the past, but people still do it. People also use pen names or stage names to give themselves a professional advantage. For example, the writer Samuel Clemens used the pen name Mark Twain, and Thomas Mapother IV uses the stage name Tom Cruise.

So, let's recap now. In today's lesson, we looked at how parents choose English first names. We also looked at some common origins of family names. In the next class, we'll look at how names are given in Korea and in Japan. This is covered in the next section of the book. That's all for today.

## Unit 2 English: A Global Language?

**TEACHER:** Today's topic is English as a global language. I know many of you speak English as a second language, right? How about you, Hiroshi? Is English your first language?

**STUDENT 1:** No, my first language is Japanese. English is my second language.

**TEACHER:** And how about you, Patricia?

**STUDENT 2:** English is my second language, too. My first language is Spanish.

**TEACHER:** See, many of you use English as a second language, even as a global language to **communicate** with other people who speak English as a second language.

Today, I want to give you two contrasting points of view on whether or not English is a global language. The first is that English is obviously a global language. People who support this point of view believe English is the language people all over the world use to communicate, and that it is gradually replacing other languages. The second point of view is that English is not truly a global language, because it is not the main language spoken by most people worldwide. Supporters of this view say that even though many people speak some English worldwide, English has not replaced other languages. They **acknowledge** that people use English every day, for many reasons, but this doesn't mean English is replacing other languages, nor does it make English the main language spoken in the world.

First, let's examine the first view. First of all, English is the dominant language of business, travel, and science. When people need a common language, they often use English. Think about it. English is often used at tourist information centers, in international hotels, at airports. If you use a taxi in Rome, and you can't speak Italian, the taxi driver is more likely to use English than any other languages. It is used at business meetings and international sports events. The European Union uses English, along with French, at its meetings. . . . ASEAN, the Asian trade group, uses English at its meetings. Can you think of other situations in which English is used as a common language?

**STUDENT 2:** How about this class? All of us are listening to you in English.

**TEACHER:** Absolutely. Educational settings are a great example. Any others?

**STUDENT 2:** How about a chatroom on the Internet? I sometimes go to chatrooms and everyone is using English.

**TEACHER:** Excellent example. The Internet has created a lot of international communities and people often use English. In fact, most people who use the Internet know English. This helps support the view that English is a global language.

The second major reason that people believe English is a global language is that it is the **official** language of more than seventy-five countries. This means these countries use English in schools, banks, business, and government. Of these seventy-five countries, English may be the only official language of the country, like in England, or English may be used along with other official languages, like in the Philippines, Singapore, and India. In countries like India, where so many languages are spoken, you can see how using English as an official language makes it easier for people to communicate.



The third reason to support the global argument is that every year about 1 billion people study English. Why? What are some of the reasons? Hiroshi? How about you?

**STUDENT 1:** Well, now to study, and someday I want to be in international business.

**TEACHER:** That's a solid reason. How about you, Oksana?

**STUDENT 3:** I'm not really sure. I just think it will help me in the future somehow.

**TEACHER:** OK. There's a more general reason. The point is, people want and need to learn English because it offers them opportunities.

To sum up, English is used every day by many people. People all over the world come in **contact** with each other for many reasons. They need a common language, a language to **facilitate** communication. Being **proficient** in English gives someone an advantage in these situations.

OK. I have given you many examples of how English is used in a variety of situations. **Nevertheless**, does this mean that English is a global language?

Let's look at why some people don't believe English has replaced other languages. First, there are about three times as many people who speak Chinese as their first language as those who speak English as a first language. And in many countries where some people use English for work each day, they don't use English anywhere else. Even in English-speaking countries, there are millions of people who prefer to speak a language other than English at home, with friends, or at work.

Second, I mentioned before that seventy-five countries have English as their official language. This doesn't mean all, or even most of the people in these countries can speak English. For example, in India, most sources agree that only about 5 percent of the population speaks English. That's a small percentage!

Third, how much English does a person need to know to be called an English speaker? People may learn some English for specific situations, such as the taxi driver I mentioned earlier. However, I think you would all agree with me that a taxi driver who knows a few phrases like "Where are you going?" or "What is the name of your hotel?" isn't really a proficient English speaker. Another example is **Airpeak**, the English that is used by air traffic controllers and pilots. A pilot for Japan Airlines or an air traffic controller in Paris needs to know **Airpeak**. But they may learn only the English words they need for these jobs, and therefore they can't be considered English speakers.

The point here is that people all over the world may use some English for work or other situations. Nevertheless, this doesn't mean they are **fluent** in English. They still use their first language for daily communication. English is not their main language.

So, what does this all mean? I think it's safe to say that English will continue to be the main language used in many international settings because, as I said earlier, people all over the world need a common language. And, for now, English is that language.

But, English won't **replace** other languages for most daily communication and this, to me, is what a global language really is, one that replaces others for most everyday communication. Some people are afraid of this. They worry that as people use English more and more, their ability in their first language will **decline**. I think people will use English along with other languages. We are moving into a global culture, and as this continues, I think people from non-English speaking countries will want to maintain their culture, including their first language. They may still want to learn English, but I don't see them giving up their own language for English. What do you think?

I'm going to stop there. I know that's a lot of information to digest. We'll continue talking about some of the differences in the English words used in various countries like Australia, Singapore, and the Philippines. That's all for today. Come see me if you have any questions.

### Unit 3 High Anxiety: Phobias

**TEACHER:** Good afternoon. Today we're going to turn to a new topic in **psychology** and start looking at some specific psychological problems. There are a variety of mental problems that can affect us in our daily lives—some are not so serious, like a fear of cats or of insects, and others are more serious. Now as psychologists, we try to study these different problems and find ways to help people.

I want to start the discussion by talking about a fairly common kind of psychological problem—a phobia, that's P-H-O-B-I-A. First, I'll explain what a phobia is, and then I'll talk about some theories on why people have phobias. As you probably know, a phobia is a fear. So do any of you have phobias? Oh, come on, you can tell me; I'm a psychologist. Yes, Monica?

**STUDENT 1:** I have a fear of swimming. I don't like to go near the ocean.

**TEACHER:** OK, that's not an unusual phobia. Anyone else? Ali?

**STUDENT 2:** I hate dogs. I mean, I just don't like them. When I see a big dog, actually any dog, I just get nervous, so I avoid them.

**TEACHER:** OK, that's another common phobia. Thanks for sharing those examples of phobias. A phobia is not a normal fear; it is an **extreme** fear—a very strong fear. For example, my brother, who's a successful artist, had computer phobia. He didn't simply dislike using computers. He used to have a very strong fear of using them.

Psychologists have come up with three **characteristics** of a phobia. People **display** these three characteristics if they have a phobia, not just a **normal** fear. Now first, a phobia is not a **rational** response. It's a very strong reaction, too strong for the situation. For my brother, this meant he had a very strong physical reaction if someone asked him to use a computer. He started shaking violently and had trouble breathing. Once, he even started choking. Physical reactions like this are common. Second, a phobia often lasts for a long time, for months or even years. In my brother's case, it lasted several years. Third, the reaction is too strong for a person to control. For example, even if my brother told himself not to be afraid at the computer, it didn't help. He still felt very afraid. Usually, people avoid whatever it is they are so afraid of. So, in my brother's case, he avoided using a computer.

OK, so those are the three characteristics of phobias. It's an extreme, irrational response, it's long-lasting, and it's uncontrollable.

**STUDENT 3:** So uncontrollable means even if you try to control it, you can't?

**TEACHER:** Yes, it means you can't control it by trying to deny you feel the phobia. There are ways to treat phobias, and we'll talk about those in a minute. Yes?

**STUDENT 4:** What happened to your brother? Did he get over it?

**TEACHER:** Yes, he did. The main thing was that he decided that he wanted to get over it, and he was treated by a psychologist. Now he uses computers all the time.

OK, so let's spend a minute going over some classifications of phobias. Phobias are **classified** by the thing or situation that the person fears. Greek or Latin names are usually used to describe the fear. Here's an example: *hypno*, H-Y-P-N-O, means sleep, so fear of sleep is hypnophobia. *Cyno*, C-Y-N-O, means dog. So a fear of dogs is . . . cynophobia, right? Here's another example. Aerophobia. Listen to the first part, Aero. What's the fear? *Aero* as in airplane—aerophobia is fear of flying.

Let's turn now to the causes of phobias. One theory is that a phobia is learned. This means something happens that causes someone, or in a sense "teaches someone" to

feel afraid. For example, Ali could have learned to be afraid of dogs if he was attacked and injured by one as a child.

People can also learn to have phobias by watching how other people react. In fact, doctors find that phobias tend to run in families. For example, let's imagine that Ali's mother has always been afraid of dogs. Whenever Ali and his mother were together and saw a dog, his mother would get very scared, very nervous. When Ali saw how his mother reacted, he would then gradually become very scared, too. He would then have **developed** cynophobia from watching his mother. So, you can see that there are two ways learning can be involved in phobias. So, the first theory is that a phobia is learned. Learned either by direct experience or by watching the reactions of others.

The second theory says that a phobia is only a sign of a deeper problem. This means that the phobia isn't the whole problem. Let's take another example. I once treated a teenager who was very afraid of the dark. He couldn't be in a dark room by himself. He was terrified to go outside at night, and so on. According to this theory, when he acted afraid of the dark, he was really showing his fear of something else. In therapy, it was **revealed** that he was afraid of his father. His father was very strict when he was young, and once his father made him sit in a dark room when he did something bad. According to this theory, his fear of the dark was a sign of his deeper, real fear of his father. Yes, question.

**STUDENT 4:** So what did you do? Did he have to talk with his father?

**TEACHER:** Well, no, we couldn't do that. But recognizing that he was really afraid of his father, and not the dark, was the key step in the treatment. Now he's cured. No more fear of the dark.

OK, so let's think about these two theories, and about the main difference between them. The first theory says that the phobia is the problem itself. Right? And, the second theory says that the phobia is a sign of a deeper problem the person has. Why is this difference important? It's mostly important in deciding how to **treat** the person. According to the first theory, if a phobia is learned, perhaps it can be **unlearned**. A psychologist who follows this theory will try to teach someone to react differently, to behave differently when he or she feels afraid. Changing the person's behavior is the goal. On the other hand, a psychologist who believes the second theory may start by trying to teach the person to react differently, but the doctor is interested in more than that. The doctor's **objective**, or goal, is to help the patient reveal the deeper psychological problem, because it will be easier to treat the phobia if the deeper problem is identified and worked on as well.



I want you to think for a minute about the significance of having these two theories, or any competing theories. What does it mean? It tells us that psychologists, like any scientists, have to continue to do research, to learn, and to test treatments we believe will be effective based on research. Treatments improve the more we learn.

I'm going to stop there for today. In the next class, I want to talk about other psychological problems. Read the next unit in your book before the next class. That's all for today.

## Unit 4 TV: What We Watch

**TEACHER:** Good morning. Who watched TV last night? Ah, most of you. OK, today we are going to talk about an important part of the media—TV. Specifically, TV viewing and TV dramas. Now first, I'll give you some background, then we'll discuss what makes this type of programming, dramas, so popular worldwide.

OK. Let's get started. Most of you would agree that watching TV is part of most people's lives. Now statistics vary on how much TV people watch, but research shows that quite a few Americans, on average, **exceed** six hours of TV per day.

An English professor named Cecelia Tichi has studied TV for many years. In her book, *Electronic Hearth: Creating an American Television Culture*, she discusses how the TV has become the center of activity at home. We walk into a room, turn on the TV, and suddenly the outside world becomes less important. People use TV to tune out, or forget, about the outside world. We're safe to relax and join the world of the TV shows. Do you ever feel this way about TV? . . . Yes, many of you are nodding. She also sees our culture as being defined by TV. Now, by this she means that TV has a huge influence on our attitudes, on what we like to eat, on what we like to wear, on what we like to talk about. For example, popular TV shows are discussed at work, at school, in coffee shops. Why, even children four or five years old do this with their favorite shows. This shows that we live in a TV culture.

Improved technology has contributed further to our TV culture. Satellite services, in particular, have **expanded** the TV programming in many parts of the world. There are now hundreds of TV channels people can watch, and the **options** continue to expand: game shows, sports, news, talk shows, comedies, TV dramas, movies, . . . Man, with cable and satellite there are a lot of choices.

Nielsen Media Research studies people's TV viewing habits in the U.S. They **monitor** which shows are popular and with whom. For example, popular shows have included the game show *Who Wants To Be A Millionaire?*

and the reality TV show *Survivor*. They were very, very popular and watched by millions of people of all age groups.

Now, all of this is really background. What I want to focus on today is one form of a popular TV show that is popular with many people of many age groups. This is TV dramas, specifically TV dramas known as soap operas, or, in Spanish, telenovelas.

Some of you might be familiar with telenovelas. Telenovelas and soap operas in the U.S. are **similar** but have one big difference—the number of **episodes** they have. Telenovelas and TV serials end after about 200 episodes. The story eventually ends. Soap operas in the U.S., however, continue day after day for many years and may never end. Well, for example, *The Guiding Light* has been on for more than 12,000 episodes, and on it goes. Can you believe that? More than 12,000 episodes!

Soap operas started in the United States in 1959, with the show *The Guiding Light*. These TV shows were called soap operas because the main advertisers were companies that made soap.

Now, this type of programming is popular all over the world. Dozens of countries make their own soap opera shows. Mexican soap operas have been voted the most popular TV show of the year in countries such as Korea and Russia. Japanese soap operas are sent to Belgium. U.S. soap operas are watched worldwide. The Latin American soap opera, *Betty La Fea*, or Betty The Ugly, was a huge success in the U.S. Brazilian telenovelas are the most widely distributed television shows in the world and have been seen in more than 100 countries. And there are many other examples.

What is it about these shows that makes them popular everywhere? And why do people from very different cultures all enjoy watching the same soap opera? Well, there are a couple of reasons.

One reason suggested by Robert C. Allen, who has done extensive research on television viewing, is that many soap operas deal with universal themes that people all over the world understand. Themes are topics—for example, family, love, personal struggle, money problems, marriage problems, health problems, job problems. Viewers do not need to know the culture in order to understand the family problems in the show.

Now according to Irna Phillips, one of the creators of *The Guiding Light*, another reason is that people identify with the characters. They feel the characters are just like them. To **quote** her from an interview, "they (the soap operas) deal with life as we know it." Now by this she means the families in soap operas deal with problems of everyday life. And so, as people watch every day, day after

day, a special **bond** or feeling develops between them and the TV family. They get to know the characters and their problems. The TV family's **welfare** becomes important. There is a sense of community, of sharing, of family. All of these things contribute to character loyalty. If any of you have watched a show regularly, you know what I mean. You watch it because you identify with the characters.

Now, writers of TV shows understand that TV viewers want to have a group of characters to know and care about. As Wendy Riche, former executive producer of *General Hospital* put it, "the audience wants a personal, human connection, and when they get it, they are devoted." This means they become very **loyal** to the TV characters they watch every day. To give an interesting example from *As the World Turns*: Some years back, the writers wanted to have the main character, Bob Hughes, get shot on a Friday. Well, that Friday turned out to be Christmas Eve. The producers of the show told the writers, "No, no, no . . . he can't be shot on this Friday's show. Do you know why?"

**STUDENT 1:** Because it was too violent?

**TEACHER:** Well, no, not because it was too violent, but they didn't want him shot on the Friday before Christmas.

**STUDENT 1:** Why? I mean, why not?

**TEACHER:** Because the audience would worry all week-end about him. They wouldn't know if he was alive or dead, and they would not enjoy Christmas. So, the writers had to change the story, and have him shot after Christmas. I mean, the viewers really identify with these characters as if they're real people.

Writers for evening TV also try to create character loyalty, but not with a continuing story. Instead, each week, the story begins and ends. However, each week the same characters appear, and viewers watch because they know the characters and they care about them, like friends. A great example of this was the show *Seinfeld*. There were four main characters: Jerry, George, Kramer, and Elaine. They each had their own problems, their own personalities. Viewers got to know them, and wanted to see what would happen to them. When you think about it, don't good writers usually do this? They develop our interest in the characters so that we want to keep reading, or keep watching TV.

The next time you watch a soap opera, think about the themes that make these shows so popular worldwide. Think about how as people watch each day, they get to know the characters and become a part of that TV community. OK, that's all for today. Uh, it's time for you to go home and watch some TV!

## Unit 5 Learning Differently

**TEACHER:** Hello everyone. I think we can get started now. As we have studied in this class, there are many different ways of learning, and there are many different learning problems. Some people have problems with reading, or math, or with **expressing** their ideas in words. Some people have memory problems—for example, they have difficulty remembering what they hear or read. Other people have problems holding a pencil or pen so that they can write. As educators, these are **challenges** that we need to understand, because everyone deserves an education—and it's our job to promote learning.

Today I'd like to talk about one common cause of learning problems—dyslexia. The term "dyslexia," that's D-Y-S-L-E-X-I-A, is from Greek. It means difficulty with words and language. In the first part of my talk, I'll briefly explain what dyslexia is and give you some general background about it. Then, in the second part, I will **present** one doctor's explanation of why people with dyslexia have learning difficulties.

OK, what is dyslexia? Dyslexia means a difficulty with reading or writing. Before about 1970, researchers thought dyslexia was a visual problem. A problem seeing letters and words correctly. But this theory was never **confirmed** to be true. Researchers have now concluded that the main problem may be that dyslexics have trouble matching sounds with letters in words because their brains work differently from other people's. Let me explain that. Every word is made up of sounds, right? The sound units are called "phonemes." Let's take the word "cat." Now, someone who is not dyslexic will read the word "cat" and be able to break it into the sounds, the phonemes Ca-A-Te. However, someone who has dyslexia has trouble breaking down the word into sounds, and as a result has trouble reading the word.

There are other problems people with dyslexia may have, and not everyone who is dyslexic has the same problems. That's why there is no definition of dyslexia that is accepted by everyone. We do know, however, that a dyslexic person's brain works differently from other people's. Here are a few examples of students with dyslexia and their learning problems. Anna knows the answer to a question, but says the wrong words. Thomas studies hard for a spelling test. He can say how each word is spelled, but he cannot write the words correctly on the test. Kurt tries to **pay attention** in class, but he has trouble sitting still and listening. He can't concentrate, and his teachers think he doesn't care about school. Seiji has trouble with the order of things, such as the steps in a math problem, his history lessons, or even his own daily schedule. Susan has trouble following directions. She may confuse left and right. . . . Yes, do you have a question?



**STUDENT 1:** I don't understand about the boy who can't sit still.

**TEACHER:** The boy who can't concentrate in class?

**STUDENT 1:** Yes, I mean how is that dyslexia?

**TEACHER:** Well, typically, the child has trouble following spoken directions or understanding the steps in a lesson, and so he becomes very nervous or upset and can't concentrate. OK?

**STUDENT 1:** Oh, OK. So the dyslexia prevents him from concentrating?

**TEACHER:** Right. These are some of the challenges for people with dyslexia. And as I said earlier, no two people have *identical* problems. Of course, there are other reasons why a student might not pay attention in class, or have trouble reading. However, these are problems someone with dyslexia may have because a dyslexic person's brain works differently from other people's. Another question, yes?

**STUDENT 2:** How common is dyslexia?

**TEACHER:** It's estimated that 10 percent of all school children are dyslexic.

**STUDENT 2:** Wow, that's a lot. I heard that it only affects boys. That's not true, is it?

**TEACHER:** No. Research has confirmed that both genders can have dyslexia. OK, so that gives you an idea of the problem, but what causes dyslexia? Researchers think that there may be a genetic basis for dyslexia, that the problem is *inherited* from the mother or the father. This is based on the fact that about 85 percent of children with dyslexia have either a mother or father who is dyslexic.

What's interesting—as well as challenging for us educators—is that these kids generally score high on intelligence tests, but they usually can't read, write, or spell at the same level as their classmates. This can be a problem because other people, even their teachers, often don't believe that the kids are very intelligent. In addition, dyslexics often feel like there's something wrong with them because they can't learn the same way other kids at school can. They often feel stressed and blame themselves, especially when other people say they are lazy and not trying. Many of them try very hard to learn, but still have trouble.

In this part of the lecture, I'll present the work of Dr. Harold Levinson, a psychologist who has studied dyslexia for over twenty-five years.

To help us understand dyslexia, he tells us to think of our brains as TV sets, and to think of the parts in our brains

that receive information as computer chips. Every day, these chips, the parts in your brain, receive information, right? Now this information enters the brain as signals of what we see or hear or touch, and so on. Now, the job of these brain parts is to tune in the signals to different channels in our brain. Your brain receives the signals just as your TV set at home does, like it tunes in, say, Channel Five or Channel Six.

Now, if these computer chips aren't working right, they can't receive the signals correctly. Nor can they tune in the correct channels. So the signals *drift* around and become unclear, and as the signals drift, this causes problems. For example, if a child's brain cannot receive the signals on a page as she reads, she has difficulty reading. If a child cannot tune in the signals he hears in class, he has difficulty understanding what the teacher tells him. If a signal drifts, this can also control energy levels, our ability to concentrate, our ability to distinguish what is important and unimportant. This is why some children have difficulty sitting still in class.

The good news is that after many years of research, Dr. Levinson and others have concluded that the brain can learn to fix the drifting. Children who receive help often learn to deal with their individual problems, and do better in school. Naturally, it's best if the schools *intervene* and give help when the children are very young. It's also important that teachers, and you future teachers, be *flexible* about how you teach, and consider the different learning needs of students with dyslexia. . . . In some special schools for dyslexic learners, the teachers read to the students. They don't require the students to read or write to learn. Teachers present lessons in a variety of ways. Students can take tests orally, rather than in writing. And reading and writing are taught as separate skills. This approach recognizes that these students are very capable of learning, but need to be taught in a different way because they learn differently. This is a very positive step.

So, today I've given you some general ideas about what dyslexia is, and what educators are doing to help these students learn. OK, well, that's enough for today. We'll talk more about this in the next class.

## Unit 6 Immigration: Bound for the United States

**TEACHER:** All right. Let's get started. U.S immigration is our topic today. I know many of you are immigrants, so you know something about this topic. As you may know by my last name, I have a German background; my parents immigrated to the U.S. from Germany about fifty years ago. . . . Yes, question?

**STUDENT 1:** Does that mean you're an immigrant?

TEACHER: Well, no. My parents are immigrants. They came to the States from Germany. I'm a first generation German-American because I was born here.

First, we'll talk briefly about immigration, the history of immigration to the U.S., and the story of diversity in the U.S.

To immigrate means to move from one country to another. It's a **permanent** move. By contrast, if you go to live and work in France for two years, you don't immigrate there; you move there temporarily, because you plan to return to your country. So to immigrate means to move to another country to live there **indefinitely**. Immigration happens all over the world. Most people do it to improve their economic or social situation.

What I'll do now is give you a brief chronology of U.S. immigration. Let's start with the colonial period, the first wave of immigrants in the seventeenth century. Most immigrants were from Western Europe. Although the Spaniards arrived in 1513, the first permanent settlement in North America was one that the British started in 1607 in Jamestown, Virginia. People were not **prohibited** from immigrating by the British; anyone could come. Life was difficult, and some people did not **survive**, but people felt it was worth the risk to have a better life in the colonies. The French, Spanish, and Dutch also came, but in smaller numbers. I should also point out that about 20 percent of the population at this time was African American. However, most weren't immigrants; they were brought from Africa as slaves. Today we're limiting our discussion to **voluntary** immigrants—to people who choose to come to the U.S.

Now, by 1775, the U.S. population had grown to about 2.5 million. The country was growing fast. Some thought too fast. So in the 1790s, laws were passed to control immigration for the first time. The Naturalization Act of 1798 required immigrants to live in the U.S. a certain number of years before they became citizens.

The second big wave of immigration happened between 1840 and 1920. During this wave, about 37 million people came to the U.S. The industrial revolution had begun in Europe, causing a big shift from farming to factory jobs. Many left for the U.S., hoping to continue doing the farming jobs they knew. About 80 percent of these second wave immigrants were from all over Europe. During this second wave, Chinese workers also came to the U.S., mostly as **contract** workers. They arranged, or contracted, to work for an American company before they left home. Most of them worked in the gold mines of California, and later built railroads. Then laws were passed in the 1880s to keep most contract workers out.

Now let's see, where are we? Ah, yes, uh, 1891. In 1891, the U.S. Congress created the INS, the Immigration and Naturalization Service, to control immigration. Any of you who want to immigrate to the U.S. have heard of the INS. Up until 1891, each state had its own laws and could decide which immigrants could enter. So no one really controlled the total number of people allowed in each year. After 1891, the federal government made the laws instead. A year later, in 1892, the INS opened Ellis Island, in New York Harbor. Ships would go past the Statue of Liberty, the **symbol** of a new life for many people, and stop at Ellis Island. Have any of you seen Ellis Island? Or the Statue of Liberty? You have, Stefan?

STUDENT 2: Yes, I have. The Statue of Liberty and Ellis Island.

TEACHER: What did you think?

STUDENT 2: Very impressive. Interesting, too.

TEACHER: Yes, it is interesting now that Ellis Island has been made into a museum. It's an important part of American history. Between 1892 and 1954, when Ellis Island was closed, about 12 million immigrants entered through there, most from Europe. I'd encourage you all to go for a visit.

Let's go back for a minute. About 9 million people entered the U.S. between 1900 and 1910. As a result, the U.S. government decided that it needed to limit the number of immigrants. This led to a series of new laws. First, the Immigration Act of 1917 was passed to restrict who could enter. Then in 1921, the U.S. Congress passed a quota system. This meant they decided that a certain number of people from each country could enter the U.S. each year. For example, 2 million from Germany could enter. Once that number had immigrated, no more were **allowed** until the next year. That's how the quota system worked.

During this period, say up until the 1960s, the U.S. was called a "melting pot." The attitude was that immigrants had to give up their traditions and cultures in order to create a uniform society. People were expected to forget about being Italian or Chinese. They were expected to learn English and to **adjust** to American ways of doing things.

Now, let's look at the third wave, the period from 1965 to the present time. In 1965, the quota system was abolished. Instead, a limit of 290,000 was set on the total number of people who could enter each year. During the 1970s and 1980s, about 80 percent of the immigrants were from Latin America and Asia, and only 20 percent were from Europe and elsewhere. So if you compare the second and third waves, you see that in the second wave it was mostly Europeans, and in the third wave it was mostly Latin Americans and Asians. Again, economic opportunity was the main reason people immigrated.